





AN EMPEROR WEDDING

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO





AN EMPEROR'S WEDDING

(The Able Empress Tsi-hssi Surrenders Her Power to Her Son at His Wedding)

From the series by the English artist, T. Allom

THAT the Chinese Empire did not completely crumble when the foreigners occupied Peking in 1860, was largely due to the remarkable woman who now came to the fore in China, and who remained the real ruler of the country for nearly half a century. This was the Empress Tsi-hssi. She was the favorite wife of the weak ruler Hien-fung. He fled from Peking at the approach of the English, and died soon after. Rumor accused Tsi-hssi of poisoning him; at any rate she took control on his death, had her little four-year-old son Tung-che proclaimed Emperor, and ruled in his name. She kept her treaties with the Europeans, and so secured peace. She even sought aid from the foreigners, and made the English general, Gordon, commander of an army which crushed the Taiping rebellion.

When Tung-che was sixteen years old, the Empress arranged his wedding with a bride of her own choice, and held a splendid wedding celebration at which she announced her own withdrawal from authority in her son's favor. Young Tung-che then held a reception for the different foreign envoys in Peking and seemed ready to welcome the Europeans freely.

Perhaps this alarmed his shrewd mother. At any rate she soon snatched away from him the reins of state. Edicts were once more issued in her name. Then came an announcement that the Emperor was ill with small-pox; and then that both he and his bride had died of the dread disease. The unhappy young couple had held their nominal reign for less than three years.







THE MODERNIZING OF CHINA

(Leaders During the Modernizing of China in the Later Nineteenth Century)

Specially prepared for the present work

THE Empress now proclaimed as ruler another baby of the royal Manchu race; and this little Emperor Kwang-su ruled in name, and perhaps for one brief period in fact, from 1875 to 1908. During all his reign, however, Tsi-hssi, from her position behind the throne, continued to hold the real control of the Chinese court.

The other leaders of China during the tumultuous days of Kwang-su's reign are here shown pictured with the Empress and her puppet Emperor. Li Hung Chang was the diplomat who, recognizing fully the power of the Europeans, negotiated with them treaty after treaty, trying with masterly craft to hold off the intruders until China could grow strong enough to stand alone. Prince Chung was the foremost of the ancient conservatives, disapproving every step that led toward the modernization of China, acting as the mouthpiece of the prejudices of the Peking court. Prince Tuan was the leader of those who still desired war with the "foreign devils," war, ferocious and uncompromising, to continue until every Chinaman perished if he must in hurling back the flood of invasion. Admiral Ting was the man appointed to put into practical use the knowledge learned from the foreigners. European ships, iron-clads, were bought by the Chinese government and Ting was supreme in command over these most modern and most intricate of civilization's weapons of destruction.





VIII-26

The Emperor Kwang-su
The Empress Dowager

Admiral Ting
Li Hung Chang

Prince Ching
Prince Tuan



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THE HISTORY OF THE

PROGRESS OF THE ART OF PRINTING IN GREAT BRITAIN

FROM THE FIRST BEGINNINGS TO THE PRESENT TIME

CONSIDERING THE progress of the art of printing in Great Britain, from the first beginnings to the present time, is a subject of great interest and importance. It is a subject which has attracted the attention of many of the most distinguished writers of the age, and which has been the subject of many valuable treatises. The progress of the art of printing in Great Britain, from the first beginnings to the present time, is a subject of great interest and importance. It is a subject which has attracted the attention of many of the most distinguished writers of the age, and which has been the subject of many valuable treatises. The progress of the art of printing in Great Britain, from the first beginnings to the present time, is a subject of great interest and importance. It is a subject which has attracted the attention of many of the most distinguished writers of the age, and which has been the subject of many valuable treatises.





THE FRENCH IN INDO-CHINA

(Repulse of the French from Langson Teaches China Where Her Strength Lies)

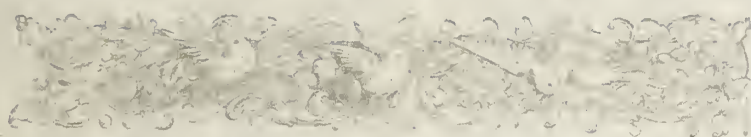
From a sketch made on the spot by A. Tofani

CHINA had now to face a far greater danger than the invasion of foreign trade. The military weakness of the country, as revealed to the Europeans who explored the land after 1860, led inevitably to plans of conquest. At first freedom of traffic had been the only European goal, but soon the "partition of China" became a phrase familiar to diplomatic circles. The first Power to make an actual seizure of part of the Chinese Empire was France. The southern region now known as Indo-China, including Burmah, Annam, etc., had long been annexed to the Empire, its princes sending regular tribute to Peking. A French fleet seized a trading port in Annam as early as 1858 and thence gradually extended French authority over the surrounding region until 1884, when Hue, the capital of Annam, was stormed and captured. Its king was compelled to abandon China and acknowledge France as his overlord.

This led to a confused Chinese-French war. The two main governments kept protesting their desire for peace while their troops met in fierce conflict along the borderland of Annam and China proper. The chief fighting was around the fortress of Langson. Finally, the Chinese agreed to abandon Annam to France and to surrender Langson on a certain date. The French commander, growing impatient of delay, attacked Langson with a small force and was defeated with heavy loss. China learned an important fact: the foreigners could ravage her coast cities with impunity; but expeditions inland cost the Europeans enormously in money and in lives. France expended fifty million dollars before she finally won possession of Annam, which has never repaid her for its cost.







KWANG-SU'S AUTHORITY PROCLAIMED

The Imperial Decree of the Emperor of China

I have received the report of the Imperial Commissioner of the Kwang-Su Province, who has informed me that the people of that province have been very much distressed by the war between the Chinese and the Japanese. I have therefore decided to send a large number of troops to that province, in order to protect the people and to restore peace and order.

I have also decided to appoint a new Governor of the Kwang-Su Province, who shall be responsible for the administration of that province, and for the protection of the people. I have therefore appointed the Imperial Commissioner of the Kwang-Su Province to be the Governor of that province, and I have given him full authority to do all such things as may be necessary for the good government of that province.





KWANG-SU'S AUTHORITY PROCLAIMED

(The Imperial Heralds Announce the Empress' Retirement)

From a painting by the English artist, R. Caton Woodville

IN the year 1887 the Empress Tsi-hssi issued a proclamation announcing that the young Emperor Kwang-su was to begin conducting his own government; and she did gradually transfer to him more and more power. In 1889 she selected a bride and prepared a solemn wedding just as she had done before for her own son, Kwang-su's ill-fated predecessor. After that Tsi-hssi was no more heard from publicly for nearly a decade.

During that time China rapidly assimilated European knowledge. Manchu nobles of high rank were sent abroad to schools and colleges. Li Hung Chang, the viceroy of the young Emperor, interested his master in railroads, and had one begun to reach from the coast to Peking. Gradually, however, the Emperor became embittered against foreigners, and only by the utmost shrewdness and boldness was Li Hung Chang able to prevent his master from adopting a violent anti-European attitude. The common people also began to express their bitterness by attacks upon foreigners in distant provinces. Isolated missionaries were slain. Then the European governments hit upon the expedient of demanding the surrender of territory in requittal for the attacks upon the missions. The only obstacle to the complete division of China among the various European nations seemed to be the jealousy of each as to what the others might gain. Li Hung Chang, like a juggler, matched one foreign government against another, keeping them skilfully apart while he retained his own official rank, despite the ever-growing discontent of the feeble Emperor.







THE HISTORY OF THE
REIGN OF
HIS MAJESTY
GEORGE THE THIRD

THE HISTORY OF THE REIGN OF HIS MAJESTY GEORGE THE THIRD, FROM HIS ASCENSION OF THE THRONE, TO THE PRESENT TIME. BY JOHN GAY, ESQ. VOLUME THE FIRST. LONDON: Printed by J. DODD, in Pall-mall; and by J. HODGKINS, in St. Paul's Church-yard. 1760.

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WAR WITH JAPAN

(General Yeh Leads the Chinese Forth From Peking)

After a Chinese sketch made on the spot

THE ancient civilization of the Chinese taught them to despise war. They entered it only upon compulsion, and gave no heed to military glory. The Manchus, however, still clung to their pride in the greatness of their empire. They had yielded perforce to the armed ships of Europe, but when one of their own Asiatic neighbors attempted to dictate to them in similar fashion, they resented it haughtily. This caused the Chinese-Japanese war of 1894.

Both China and Japan held some claim to suzerainty over the little kingdom of Korea. Japan, which had been rapidly assimilating modern civilization, attempted to extend its benefits over Korea. The Koreans objected to any change and appealed to China to protect them. China ordered the Japanese "barbarians" to leave Korea alone; and the angry Chinese Emperor sent his chief commander, General Yeh, to lead the imperial army forth from Peking to the defense of Korea. In defiant response Japanese soldiers seized the Korean capital and king.

The Chinese army was at this time in a transition state. Under the training of European officers, modern weapons had been introduced and modern tactics studied. But the Chinese still clung to many of their old methods. General Yeh still believed in frightening the enemy by noise and fury. So his troops were roused to set out with as much uproar as possible, while repeated proclamations told of the terrible things which were to be done to the wicked Japanese.







THE CHINESE VIEW OF THE WAR

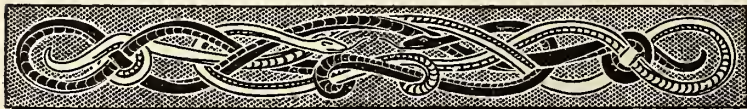
(Amid Repeated Defeats the Chinese Publish Pictures of Victory and of the Torture of Their Captives)

A copy of a Chinese picture of the war

THE Chinese bluster and tumult proved of no avail whatever against the Japanese troops. These had been trained to fight, and they attended strictly to that business. They drove Yeh and his screaming soldiers back from the Korean capital, and then attacked, defeated and dispersed his army in a great battle at Ping Yang. This gave Japan undisputed possession of Korea. Then her troops crossed the Yalu river, which separates Korea from China, and began advancing into China itself, driving their helpless enemies before them.

The great mass of Chinamen knew nothing of what was happening. China is such a vast, slow-moving country that news scarcely penetrates it. The Chinese commanders did not dare admit what had happened, and sent forth announcements of victories even while they fled. Peking was flooded with pictures and placards such as that here reproduced. It shows General Yeh seated in triumph among his officers, while his men drag in the defeated Japanese prisoners. These are being condemned to death for their reckless crime of fighting against the noble Manchus, and are then being executed up in the corner of the picture.

Thus the Chinese people and probably even the Emperor himself supposed the war was being fought victoriously.



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ADMIRAL TING'S SURRENDER

(The Chinese Yield Their Last Defensive Post to Japan)

From a painting by the English artist, R. Caton Woodville

THERE came a time when the swift, shrewd and relentless advance of the Japanese could no longer be concealed or misrepresented. The approach to Peking by sea is defended by two powerful positions a couple of hundred miles away, guarding the north and the south shore of the ocean gulf at whose head Peking lies. The northern guardian, the great natural fortress of Port Arthur, was first reached by the advancing Japanese, and was successfully stormed. Then, their ships having defeated those of China, they landed troops to attack the southern protecting fortifications at Wei-hai-wei. These were commanded by Admiral Ting, who had fled thither with the remnant of the defeated Chinese navy. Ting defended the place bravely, desperately, but hopelessly. The Chinese had modern arms, but had not at all grasped how to use them; the Japanese had become masters of all the arts of modern war. So at length Ting and his surviving soldiers were compelled to surrender. Ting committed suicide to show his helplessness; and the Chinese Emperor and his court awoke at last to the fact that Peking was no longer defensible. Twice the Europeans had advanced against the "Imperial City"; once they had actually seized it; now the Japanese threatened to do the same.

In this juncture Li Hung Chang, the practical man who met issues as they were, was restored to the full favor of the Emperor and was sent to Japan to arrange terms of peace. He did so, yielding Corea to Japan, and all the Chinese coast around Port Arthur, and promising to pay a heavy war indemnity.





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LI HUNG CHANG IN EUROPE

(The English Prime-Minister Gladstone Welcomes the Equally Aged and Distinguished Chinaman)

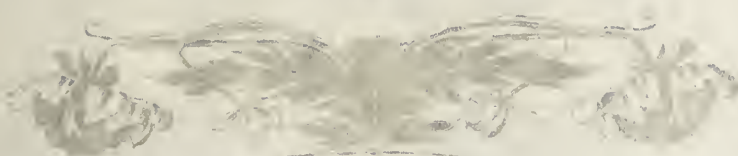
From a painting by the English artist, W. H. Overend

THERE can be no question that to Europeans Li Hung Chang stands out as having been by far the greatest man and ablest statesman of modern China. After the Japanese war he visited the various royal governments of Europe to arrange treaties with them which should place the affairs of China on a practical basis. Thus he ended forever the stubbornness with which China's rulers had previously persisted in ignoring the facts of modern life. Li Hung Chang even managed to deprive Japan of some of the fruits of victory. The European governments insisted on her withdrawing from Port Arthur, whence she could really dominate Peking. Shortly afterward Li deliberately leased to Russia for an endless period this fortress which his own countrymen could not defend. Similarly he leased the other fortress, Weihai-wei, to Great Britain.

Everywhere in Europe the great Chinese statesman was received with high honor. In England he and the aged and celebrated Gladstone met and discussed affairs as equals. Li really placed his country under the protection of Europe, especially of England and Russia. He visited the United States also. China had previously hated our country because we had offended her pride by refusing to permit her people to enter our territory. Gradually, however, the United States began to assume the honorable position of China's one disinterested friend, the only one who had no "axe to grind," no desire to seize her territory.







A MAN IN PIOT AGAINST THE EMPEROR





A MANCHU PLOT AGAINST THE EMPEROR

(Manchu Nobles in the Hall of Ancestors Secretly Plan the Deposition of Kwang-su)

From the historical series by T. Allom

ONE Chinaman who, it seems, had been most thoroughly convinced of the necessity of radical changes throughout the empire, was the Emperor Kwang-su himself. After the Japanese war he roused himself to a period of startling energy. His chief adviser at this time was a philosopher named Kang Yuwei, who was called by his admirers the "Modern Sage." He advocated a complete change in everything. Cues were to be cut off, all old customs to be done away with, all court officials were to be dismissed, and China was to become a constitutional monarchy. The Emperor began proclaiming these reforms one after another.

The Manchu nobility were thoroughly aroused. These changes would mean the disappearance of their rank and power. Gathering in the great "Hall of Ancestors," they whispered to one another that their very religion was at stake, the worship of ancestors was not a European faith, and hence would be done away with. So the Manchus went to the aged Empress Tsi-hssi, who had given the power to Kwang-su, and who alone could take it away again. They entreated her to check him in what they considered madness. So in 1898 Tsi-hssi emerged suddenly from her ten years of retirement. There was a quiet palace revolution; the Emperor was made virtually a prisoner, and once more edicts were issued in the name of the celebrated Empress.





FRANKLIN D. WATKINS, JR.



PREPARING AGAINST THE BOXERS

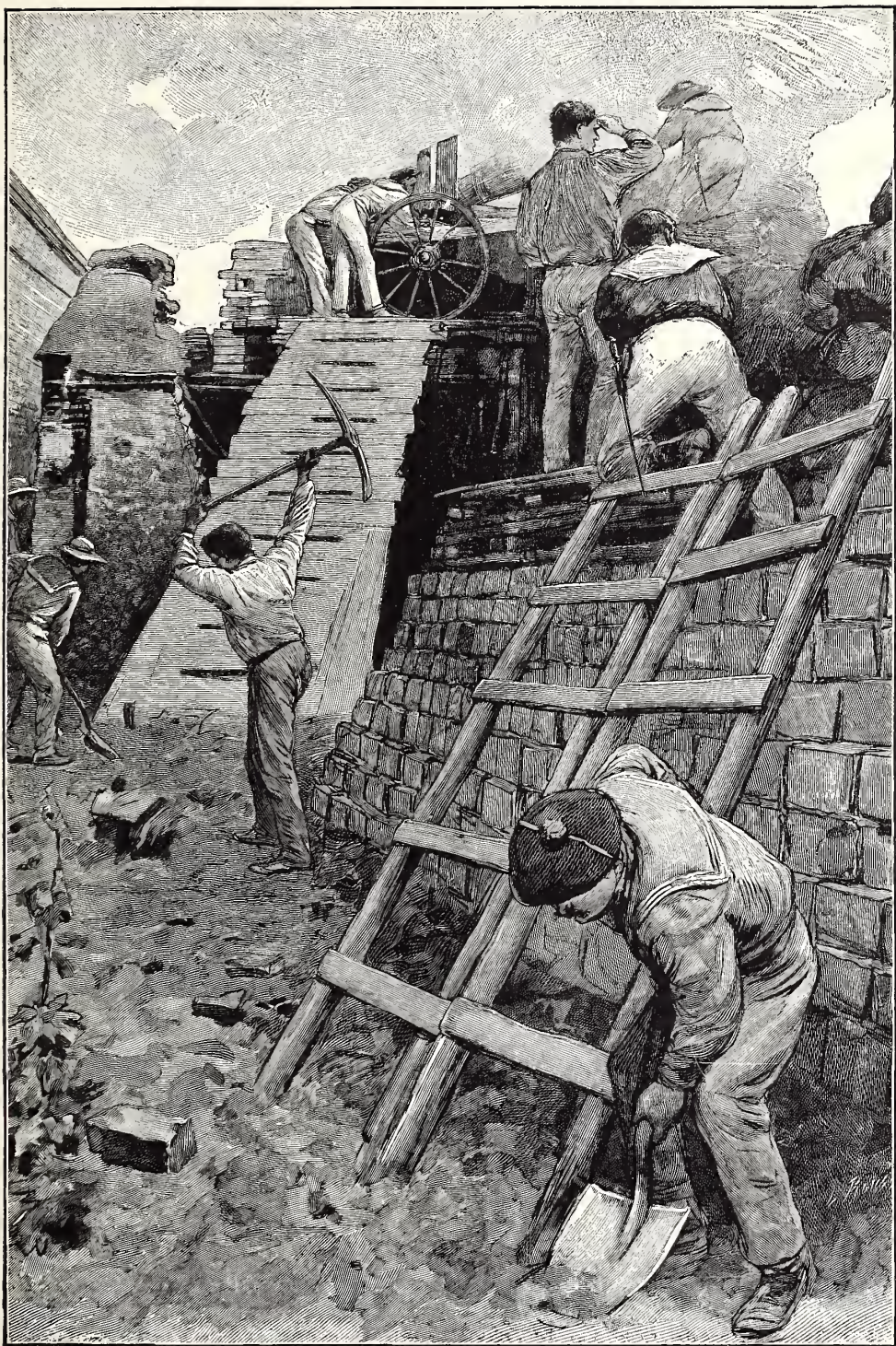
(The American Legation at Peking Preparing for Defense)

From a photograph taken during the defense

THE final period of the Empress' rule lasted until her death in 1908. These were years of reaction in China. Li Hung Chang lost most of his influence, and died in 1901; the "Modern Sage," Kang Yuwei, was a fugitive; the Emperor a helpless prisoner. The Empress and her court encouraged opposition to the foreigners and to all their works. The court gazette of Peking told the people, truthfully enough, that the European governments "cast looks of tiger-like voracity on the empire." Pamphlets were widely circulated containing the most bitter and scurrilous attacks upon the Christian religion, which in sarcastic reference to the graspingness of Europeans, is styled in China "the Faith of the Heavenly Pig." A secret society was formed or rather revived, having for its purpose undying opposition to everything European. This society was named in quaint involved Chinese fashion, the "Literary Patriotic Harmonious Fists," or more shortly the Fists, which we have translated into English as the Boxers.

These Boxers soon began to express openly their resentment against the foreigners. When the European governments protested against this dangerous state of affairs, they were met by polite words and repeated assurances that the Boxers would be surpassed. But so threatening became the attitude of the lower class natives of Peking that, in the spring of 1900, the men of the various European legations began consulting together and quietly turned their homes, especially the conveniently situated courtyard of the American legation, into fortresses ready for immediate defense.







EUROPE MAKES WAR ON CHINA

The Great Powers of Europe, America and Japan, the United States

China, Japan, America, the United States, the United States

I have been thinking of the war between the United States and China, and of the war between the United States and Japan, and of the war between the United States and Europe. The war between the United States and China is the most important of the three, and the war between the United States and Japan is the most important of the two. The war between the United States and Europe is the most important of the three, and the war between the United States and Japan is the most important of the two. The war between the United States and China is the most important of the three, and the war between the United States and Japan is the most important of the two. The war between the United States and Europe is the most important of the three, and the war between the United States and Japan is the most important of the two.

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EUROPE MAKES WAR ON CHINA

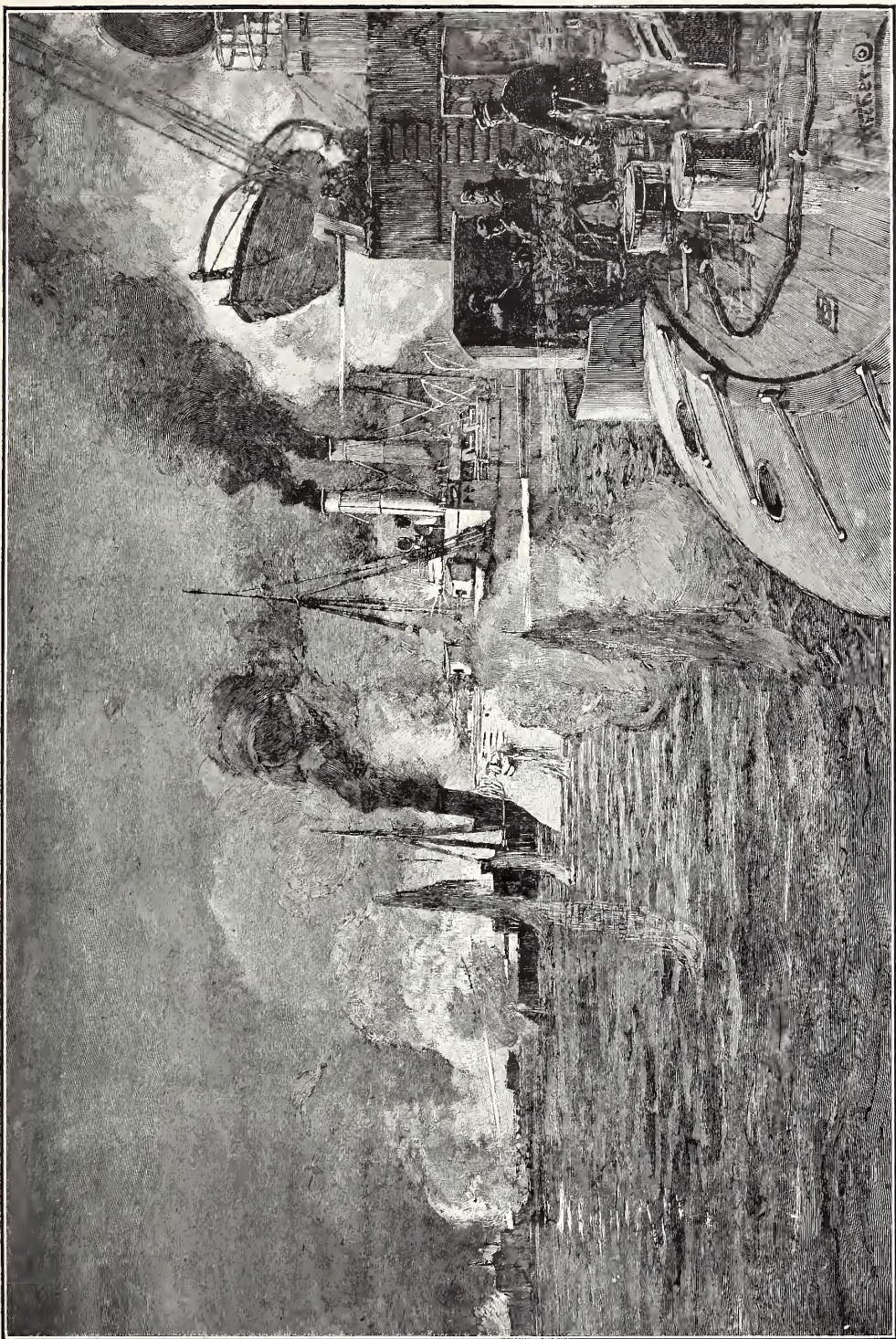
(The Allied Fleets of Europe Bombard and Capture the Taku Forts)

From a painting by the German artist, Alex. Kircher

IN June, 1900, the Boxers broke into open war against the foreigners, and the Chinese government soon became involved in the struggle. Ships and soldiers from each of the European powers and also from our own country and Japan began to gather off the port of Taku, at the mouth of the river up which Peking lies. The foreign officials in Peking sent peremptory word to the commanders of these ships that troops must be marched to Peking at once to prevent a massacre of all foreigners there. So a column made up of soldiers from every nation was hastily sent forward. It was attacked upon the way by hordes of Boxers, and when these were repulsed, regular Chinese troops joined them and aided the attack. At the same times Chinese forts at Taku began firing at the ships of the foreigners.

These shots from the Taku forts were few and harmless, and the various commanders of the different nations held an anxious consultation as to whether the attack should be treated seriously as an act of war by the Chinese government. The conference finally agreed to capture the forts, though the American commander opposed this decision and refused to take part in thus beginning war without negotiations. The remainder of the fleet united in bombarding the forts, and soon reduced them to ruin. The river to Peking was, however, navigable for only a short distance. Hence the bombardment of the forts only rendered more dangerous the position of all the foreigners shut up in Peking; for Europe had now declared war upon China.







THE FALL OF COLONEL LISCUM

(The Foreign Troops for Peking are Driven Back to Tien-tsin)

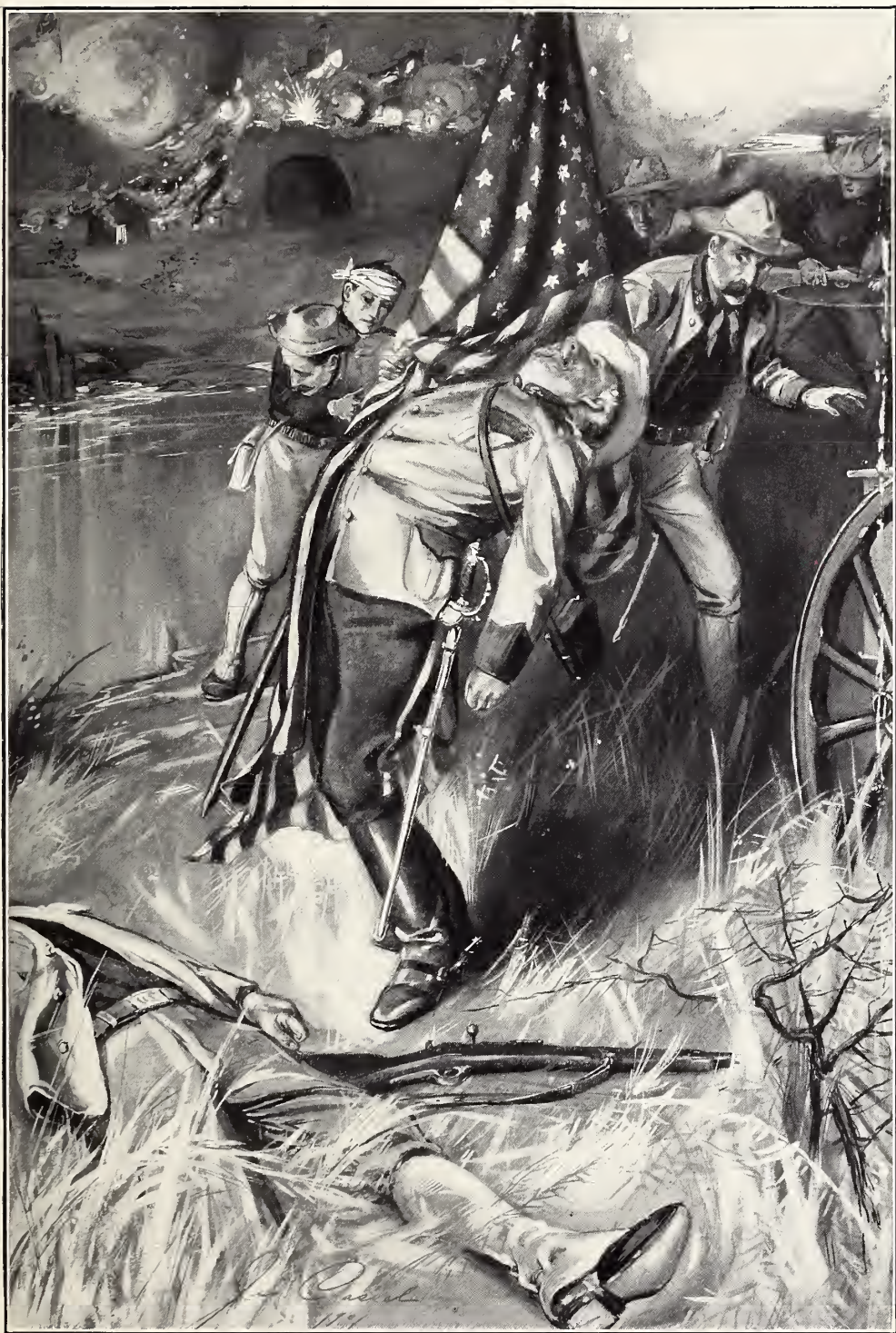
From a painting in 1901 by the American artist, John Cassel

WHILE the European fleet was thus making itself secure at the mouth of the Peking river, the troops who had been sent forward to reach Peking itself, found themselves in sore straits. The journey is about one hundred miles, and there were some two thousand of the soldiers. They started by railroad, but soon found the rails torn up. Then, as they fought their way onward afoot, they were assailed at every step by hordes of Boxers. Their ammunition began to give out; advance became impossible, and they fell back to the strong city of Tien-tsin, some thirty miles from the coast. Here they were met by reinforcements from the fleet.

For nearly a month there was confused and desperate fighting around Tien-tsin. The Chinese were strongly entrenched in one part of the city; the allied troops held the other part. The foreigners fought bravely, the men of each nation striving to outdo the others. All, however, were much handicapped by lack of knowledge of one another's languages, so that there was a lack of coöperation and a constant confusion of commands. The Americans, though few in number, distinguished themselves by their valor. Their leader, Colonel Liscum, was killed while leading his men in the final assault, by which the Chinese were driven from the city.

During all this fighting, most of the Chinese were regular soldiers of the Empire. Moreover, these soldiers had improved greatly since the Japanese war. Their shooting was steady, their aim good, and their valor high. The victory at Tien-tsin was only achieved at a heavy cost of lives upon both sides.





eigners who could be deemed safe were those under the guns of their own men-of-war, or who were guarded by armed volunteers.

The Chinese-Japanese war broke out during the height of this excitement (1894). It had its origin in the attempt of Japan to acquire a controlling influence in Corea, the Hermit Kingdom, over which China had long held some vague claim of suzerainty. The success of Japan was astounding in its completeness. Her troops invaded Corea, won a battle at Ping-yang, and drove the Chinese out of the disputed province. The Chinese fleet of modern naval vessels was completely defeated off the Yalu River (September 17, 1894), and such ships as escaped were afterward captured by the Japanese. The victorious troops, meanwhile, pressed on into Manchuria and captured Port Arthur and also Wei-hai-wei; the two points of defence leading to the inner gulf before Chi-li, the province wherein Peking lies. The terrified Chinese sued for peace, paid a large indemnity, and ceded to Japan the island of Formosa (1895).

It was during this war that Li Hung Chang's power rose to its highest point. He did his utmost to mould the inefficient army into shape, and had he been assisted as he should have been, there might have been a different story to tell. It is due to him that China's navy was built, her two naval fortresses occupied, naval and military schools established, coal mines opened, a merchant marine organized, a large army partly trained, and a railway constructed to meet that of Siberia.

In the negotiations with Japan at the conclusion of the war between the two countries, Li Hung Chang showed remarkable courage and tact. He declined the proposal of an armistice, willing that the Japanese should do their worst before he complied with the conditions demanded. Very fortunately for the Yellow Empire at this crisis, a Japanese assassin came so near killing Li that the surgeons dared not remove the bullet from his face. That grievous wound so aroused the sympathy of the Japanese Emperor that he granted the armistice with the hard conditions removed.

Li's criticisms of the treaty were acute, and led to concessions which never could have been obtained by other means. One of these concessions was the deduction of a hundred million dollars in silver from the indemnity at first demanded and another was the withdrawal of the claim for the cession of Mukden, the old Manchurian capital, and the strip of land between that and the fortieth parallel.

It need hardly be added that Li was enormously wealthy, for he would not have been a true Chinaman had he failed to improve his opportunities. He was ranked by many as among the few richest people in the world. He received the Yellow Jacket, which Kwang-su in one of his pets took away, but

restored again. This garment, with the coat of imperial color, carries with it the highest military grade in the Chinese army.

The visit of Li Hung Chang to the United States, a few years ago, is well remembered. He was treated with the honor due his exalted rank, and his delightful impudence in quizzing men and ladies, no matter how high their station, was one of the most amusing features of his tour through the country. He also visited Europe and was everywhere received with distinguished honor. In England the great statesman, Gladstone, paid him particular respect and courtesy. At the time of the Boxer outbreak, Li was viceroy of Chi-li, and his course in that trying and responsible position is still to be told. This able and venerable statesman died from stomach disease at Peking, November 7, 1901.

A more important result of the Japanese war was the fact that many Chinese statesmen at last opened their eyes to the necessity of adopting European ideas and improvements. The young Emperor himself seems to have made a determined effort to throw off the influence of the old dowager empress and head the party of progress. It was this, apparently, that roused the old lady from her semi-retirement. She planned to depose him; he planned to arrest her. Public sympathy, or rather the ineradicable prejudice of the nation, was on her side. The Emperor's own soldiers seized him and made him her prisoner. He was secluded in one of the palaces in the heart of the "Sacred City," which lies as a town within a town, hidden in Peking.

All who were connected with him in his work of reform were degraded, and the chief of them, Kong Yo Wai, would have lost his head, but for the friendship of the British consul, who got him out of the country in time to escape the infuriated empress. She issued an edict that she had again assumed control of the government, because of the ill-health of the Emperor.

It is said that when the Emperor was a youth, some of the missionaries presented a Chinese translation of the Bible to the empress dowager. While it failed of any effect upon her, the Emperor became profoundly interested, not only in that but in the general literature of the Western world. Thus the actual beginning of imperial reform was with the missionaries, who, unintentionally, brought about the overthrow of the Emperor and the recent territorial loss to the empire. Germany seized Kiao-chau because of a missionary trouble, and that caused the Russian occupation of Port Arthur and the British occupation of Wei-hai-wei.

It was in alarm at these transgressions that the Emperor resorted to the measures of reform which resulted in his downfall. Kwang-su's failure in its turn gave birth to the Po Wong Woey or Chinese Reform Party, which was a direct cause of the Boxer uprising, with all its attendant atrocities.

The aim of the Po Wong Woey is to overturn the traditions and the seclu-

siveness that have existed for fifty centuries, and throw open the Flowery Kingdom to the civilized world, with the influx of public schools and improvements, the construction of a powerful navy and a merchant marine, and, in short, to make China a leading factor in the civilization and progress of mankind. It is said that this society to-day numbers 30,000,000 Chinese subjects, steadily growing, and with an influence felt throughout all the ramifications of the empire. Juntas of the Reform Party flourish in the leading foreign countries. Macao is the headquarters and there are branches in Hong Kong, San Francisco, Portland, Tacoma, Los Angeles, Seattle, Vancouver, and Honolulu. They may be found, too, in New York, Montreal, and Great Britain. It is estimated that about nine-tenths of the Mongols in the Western hemisphere contribute to the support of the Reform Party, whose leading purpose is to save the Chinese empire from dismemberment. This society it is stated has already a fund of \$25,000,000 at command. Its platform is broad enough to include all who wish to save their motherland from being wrenched asunder. But for the outbreak of 1900, this gigantic organization would have struck a decisive blow for China not later than the opening of the twentieth century.

The most formidable opposition to the movement is the organization of the reactionary element in different forms throughout the empire, with the empress dowager as the supreme head. The chief anti-foreign societies are the Boxers and the Bit Swords, who have a ferocious ally in the piratical "Order of the Red Flag," whose members prowl off the southern and southeastern coasts. Nothing can attest more clearly the friendship of the empress dowager for these diabolical societies than her repeated attempts to supplant Kwang-su with the nine-year-old son of Prince Tuan, the head of the Boxers and the Bit Sword Society.



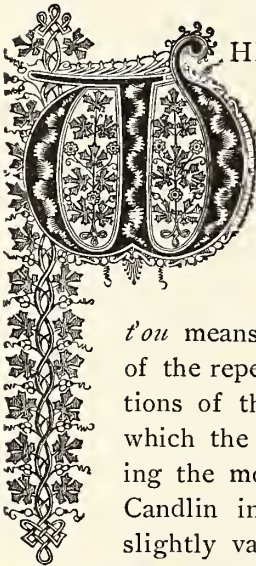
RUSSIANS FORCING CHINESE TO WORK IN MANCHURIA



THE WALLS OF PEKING

Chapter CXLVI

THE BOXER OUTBREAK



WHEN the word "Boxer" was heard at the beginning of the late troubles, nearly every one outside of China was mystified over its meaning. The best authorities say that the name is a misnomer, for, though pugilism and wrestling are practised to some extent, boxing, as we understand it, is entirely unknown in China. The name employed by the Boxers themselves is *ch'uen*, meaning literally "the fist," and the phrase *ta ch'uen t'ou* means to practise pugilism. Their exercises, however, consist of the repetition of words supposed to act as charms, violent contortions of the body, which appear to induce a state of trance, during which the subjects are supposed to deliver occult messages respecting the movement to the spectators. According to Rev. George T. Candlin in *The Open Court*, the association has given itself two slightly varying names, which are equally used. They are *I Ho Chuen* and the *I Ho T'Uan*, the correct translation of which is Volunteer Associated Fists and Volunteer Associated Train-bands. The aim of the association is the expulsion of foreigners and all things foreign from China, and the restoration of the empire to its former position of exclusion and self-sufficiency.

The insurrection began in the province of Shantung, where the enmity to foreigners has been of the most virulent character ever since the war with Japan. Thus, in 1897, this sentiment found expression in the murder of two German Catholic missionaries. The penalty was the establishment of a Ger-

man foothold in Shantung and the Gulf of Pe-chi-li, followed by the English and Russian footholds in the same province. China was forced to cede Kiao-chau to Germany; Wei-hai-wei to England, and Port Arthur and Talien to Russia. This pilfering of Chinese territory stirred the natives of North China to the exploding point, and the Boxer uprising therefore had its birth in that section of the empire.

An important and interesting question is whether this outbreak was encouraged by the imperial authorities. The preponderating evidence is that it was. In an interview with Monsignor Auzer, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Meridional Shantung, published in the London *Times*, that gentleman stated that after the territorial concessions to Europeans made in Shantung, the Peking authorities sent Viceroy Yu Shien to that province for the express purpose of stirring up a movement against the foreigners. He ordered his subordinates to begin their hostile demonstrations and they obeyed. The Viceroy appealed to the societies in his province and especially to the Big Knife Society. All of these responses not being vigorous enough to suit him, he turned to the affiliated members in other provinces. This was in May, June, and July, 1899, and Bishop Auzer warned the Chinese government that the Big Knife sect would probably turn against the reigning dynasty, for their chief looked upon himself as the true Emperor of China and more than once had appeared before his followers clad in yellow or imperial colors. But the movement was set on foot and spread beyond the boundaries of Shantung province, the extraordinary spectacle being presented of all the societies inimical to the Manchu dynasty uniting in its support. For while millions of Chinese are resolute enemies of the Manchu dynasty, and are impatiently awaiting the hour for overturning it, and restoring the Ming emperors who were dethroned nearly three hundred years ago, yet for the moment all these elements united in the single determination of rooting out the foreigners. Their opposition to the dowager empress was sunk in the deeper opposition to the outside barbarians. The motto of the Boxers it is stated was "Pao-Sing, Mie-Yang," or, "Support the dynasty; exterminate the foreigners."

On the demand of the German government, Yu Shien, governor of the Shantung province, was removed, but given a place of equal importance and honor. His successor continued, without reproach from the court, his persecution of the foreigners. It was in the nature of things that the treacherous empress dowager, an intense hater herself of white people, should be gratified by the personal loyalty of the Boxers. She had a weakness for them, and when forced by foreign governments to issue a decree because of the outrages against secret societies, she specially excepted societies which had for their objects corporal exercise and preparation for military service, or in other words,

athletic societies, such as the Boxers could, with very good reason, claim to be.

Finally, a formal demand was made upon the empress dowager, at a special audience, by the representatives of the Powers, that the government take immediate measures to suppress the Boxers. Our minister, Mr. Conger, in accordance with instructions from Washington, was present, acting independently though concurrently with the other ministers in this peremptory demand. He expressed little faith in the empress dowager in his messages to the State Department, but strongly suspected she was behind the Boxers.

The reports showed that the Boxer movement was spreading swiftly in the province of Chi-li, with great destruction of railway and telegraph lines and of mission stations. The danger grew every hour. The missionaries were ordered by the various boards to leave their stations without delay and hasten to the seaports; but when they attempted to do so, they found the roads blocked by hordes of Boxers and many turned back to the capital as their only refuge. In Peking, Chinese guns were trained on the American mission and the British legation. The anxious foreigners began to erect defences, and our own legation building was soon defended by a complete embankment.

On June 12, a member of the Japanese legation was murdered in the streets of Peking, either by soldiers or Boxers, and news came that all the foreign residents and refugees were besieged in their legation compounds.

None of us will ever forget the summer of 1900, when the eyes of the civilized world were turned toward Peking, where it was known that many missionaries, their wives and children and others were hemmed in and besieged by a horde of Boxers, all clamorous for the lives of the innocent and apparently helpless people. It seemed impossible that a single one could escape, and yet the rumors, some apparently authenticated, kept alive the hopes of those who were unwilling to believe in their destruction until such proof were absolutely established. There were hours when every cheering ray vanished, and once an assemblage of mourning friends gathered in London to hold a memorial service for the victims. Then some news would filtrate through the wall of human hate, that kindled hope once more, and drove away sleep until aid and succor should be hurried to Peking, where, at best, the resistance could not be continued many days longer.

We now know that all *did* escape the fury of the mob, to whom mercy was as much a stranger as it is to the wolf or the jungle tiger. It is a wonderful story and one of the most impressive illustrations of how Providence often overrules and overturns, when man is unable to do anything for himself.

Early in June, warships of the various nations began to gather off Taku, the port at the mouth of the Pei-ho River, leading to Peking. A message was

received from Mr. Conger and Sir Claude Macdonald, the American and British ministers at Peking, telling of the grave danger, and urgently asking that more guards be sent to them. A meeting of the consuls was called, at which the Russians and French showed some opposition to answering the call. The American, Captain McCalla, lost patience and declared that he, at any rate, was going to the help of the imperilled ones. The British were of the same mind. Troops were landed the next day (June 10), and the British and Americans took train for Peking, starting early in the forenoon. The train contained 112 American sailors, besides the British sailormen and marines. Two other trains moved out during the day, one taking more British, and the Austrians, Italians, and Japanese, while the last brought the rest of the British and the Germans. On the next day, a fourth train carried the French and Russians. The total force thus dispatched was British, 915; Americans, 112; Italians, 40; Austrians, 25; French, 100; Germans, 450; Russians, 112; Japanese 54, the whole number being 1,808. All were well armed, and they had more than a dozen pieces of artillery.

The trains had not gone far when ominous signs appeared. The track was torn up. Material for its repair had been taken along, and with the least delay the necessary work was done. At the third station, Lofa, the repairs were completed in time for the four trains to depart on the morning of June 11, a guard of thirty men being left to protect the place and line. The destruction increased as the train advanced, and on the afternoon of the 10th, while the men were repairing the line, the pickets raised the cry that the Boxers were coming. The working party was some distance ahead of the train, and the Boxers were trying to cut them off. They came running down the track on both sides of the line, the cavalry at the rear and without any military formation. The commands that rang out from the allies were in so many different languages that some confusion was inevitable, but when men are brave, their own intelligence and gesture and action make speech plain to all. In the course of a few minutes, the troops were formed into six companies and marched out to meet the Boxers, who were then quite near. There was a brief, spiteful exchange, and then the poorly armed rebels took to flight, having hurt nobody, but leaving more than thirty of their own number dead.

The road was so badly torn up that it was like laying a new one, but all toiled hard and on the afternoon of June 12 the trains were able to push some distance beyond the station known as Lang-Fang, where they went into camp. The next morning the construction had gone but a little way when the Boxers appeared again. They charged down in a scrambling rush, but were scattered with the loss of several, while they hit none of the white men. Soon after, however, they attacked in larger numbers and with better formation. There

was some confusion as before among the allies and from the same cause. The situation grew rapidly worse. It was found that not only were the tracks torn up in front, but the embankments had been destroyed, thus ending all possibility of repairing the line. The railway was useless, and besides, the Boxers began to appear in the rear of the column, which was likely to be caught between two fires. Poorly armed and disciplined as were the Chinese, their numbers were so overwhelming that the small allied force would soon be in greater danger than the legationers at Peking, for the latter had strong buildings and walls to shield them, while the soldiers were in the open. The losses of the Boxers were great, but they too were beginning to secure victims and their attacks were incessant. Vice-Admiral Seymour and Captain McCalla decided that only one course remained for saving themselves and their men: that was to retreat without delay. The start was made on the afternoon of June 19.

This return as far as Tientsin, a large city some thirty miles from the mouth of the Pei-ho, was pressed in the face of the most trying difficulties and the gravest perils. As a newspaper correspondent stated, "every inch of the way was contested." Two days after the retreat began it became evident that the Chinese regulars were fighting with the Boxers. A steady rifle fire took the place of the sword and spear. It required an hour of hard fighting with considerable loss to drive the Chinese out of Peit-sang, where they had excellent cover and handled several field guns with effect. Just below the town, the column made the fight of the expedition. The place was held by 2,000 Chinese regulars with artillery and cavalry, and they used smokeless powder, so that it was impossible to locate them. Four hours of hard fighting failed to dislodge the enemy, and the column lost severely in killed and wounded, the Americans suffering the most.

The fight of the 21st convinced some of the officers and most of the men that they would never be able to reach Tientsin unless relief came to them from below. The intention was to renew the fighting next day, but during the night the Chinese were heavily reinforced. No word had been received from Tientsin for eight days, and it was decided to try to reach the city by a night march. The column, starting a little after midnight of June 22, advanced a mile unmolested, this being the first mile travelled for three days without fighting. Only a little way farther, however, signal fires were seen on both sides of the river, and, as the advance guard approached a village, it was fired upon from behind the walls of some of the huts. A brisk charge routed the Chinese without loss to the assailants. One of the junks carrying the allies' guns sank, leaving the column with only the two Maxim guns and the nine-pounder which the British were dragging. About the middle of the afternoon, a savage fight

took place at the arsenal, which was captured after a gallant struggle. The chief fighting was done by the British, Germans, and Americans. Commander Bucholtz, of the *Kaiserin Augusta*, received a wound from which he died shortly afterward, but the capture of the place with its guns and a plentiful supply of ammunition doubtless saved the column from annihilation. The Chinese in large numbers kept up a vicious attack, but a severe storm on the afternoon of June 23 gave the tired little force a chance to gain a much needed rest. The column was now so near Tientsin that rockets were sent up as a call for help. They were answered, but to make sure, two messengers were sent thither. One failed and doubtless was killed, but the other, a boy, the son of Lieutenant Bigham of the Grenadier Guards, got through. He was captured by the Boxers, but while they were searching him he swallowed the bit of paper containing writing, and convinced his captors that he was as good a Boxer as they. As it was, it took a day for him to deliver his message. A strong column was sent to the assistance of Seymour and his brave band, and they were extricated from their perilous position. The remainder of the march to Tientsin was unopposed, though it was very slow, owing to the wounded, of whom there were nearly 200. The total losses were 374. It was not until June 26 that Vice-Admiral Seymour and Captain McCalla re-entered the settlements of Tientsin. They had been absent sixteen days, during which war had developed. Not only had the relief of Peking failed for the moment; it was delayed for weeks.

Meanwhile, important events had been transacted at the mouth of the Pei-ho. On June 17th, the Chinese forts at Taku began a vague and harmless fire on the foreign warships assembled there. These promptly returned the cannonade, and after seven hours' bombardment blew up two of the forts. Troops were then landed, which attacked the other fortifications, stormed them, and compelled their surrender.

Considerable dissatisfaction was felt in this country because in this combined attack on the Taku forts our forces took no part. The forts, it was said, had opened fire in obedience to orders from Peking. Our Admiral Kempff, however, closely followed his instructions from Washington to act concurrently with the other foreign commanders for the protection of Americans and foreigners. The admiral disapproved of the attack, not as unjust, but as inexpedient, so long as the allies were powerless to save the imperilled legationers in Peking. The attack on the forts could accomplish nothing except to exasperate the Chinese, whose mood was already dangerous. The admiral further took the position that hostilities for the time were not properly with the Chinese government, but with the turbulent rebels, the Boxers. To attack the forts, therefore, would be to attack the government, and amount to a virtual

declaration of war, the hour for which had not yet arrived. This view proved correct.

A few days later vague news reached the allies, that on June 20, Baron von Ketteler, the German Minister, while proceeding on a diplomatic mission to the Tsung-li-Yamen, in Peking, had been attacked by Chinese soldiers and killed. On the 21st the allied warships moved up the river and shelled Tientsin. Their combined forces occupied the foreign quarter of the city, but its main portion remained in Chinese hands. On June 25th the Chinese government requested an armistice through Minister Wu at Washington. Prompt reply was made that free communication must first be allowed with the legations. These messages recognized that the state of affairs closely approached war.

The Chinese soon made a resolute attempt to retake the portion of Tientsin held by the allies. There were two small fights on the morning of July 1. The Russians to the north of the city attempted to drive away what they believed to be a few Chinese. A party of Cossacks with artillery advanced against the Chinese and found them to be a large force, which began so hot a fire, that the Russians were compelled to retire. One cause of the repulse was the smokeless powder used by the Chinese, which made it impossible to locate them clearly.

Soon after this affair, 500 Japanese, Americans, Welsh Fusiliers and Indian Sikhs set out, amid a drenching rainstorm, to reconnoitre a fort north of the Chinese city. The storm made the roads so heavy that the artillery was moved with difficulty. Another strong force of the enemy was uncovered, and the allies were obliged to return without accomplishing the object of their reconnoissance. Throughout most of the forenoon, the Chinese shelled the settlements, and rifle bullets pattered in the streets all day, but no special harm was done.

On the night of July 2, the Chinese sharply attacked the Russians, holding the railway bridge and stations. A hot rifle fire lasted for three hours, while now and then a screeching shell was heard amid the din. The Russians were so hard pressed that a body of French infantry went to their help. Further to the left of the allies a few Sikhs, and a part of a British-Chinese regiment from Wei-hai-wei were engaged with the Chinese occupying the villages across the river between the settlements and the native city. By eleven o'clock the whole line was in action, the fighting continuing with scarcely an interruption for four hours.

The Chinese again began shelling the settlements at eight o'clock the next morning. They had hastily erected a fort two miles northeast of the French concession, and had four guns mounted in a village north of the railway station. They had also two or three guns in the native city.

The Russians marched north of the railway station with three guns, and had another mounted on a mud wall east of the town where the railway crosses. This was quickly located by the Chinese, who knocked it down the bank, killing four men and wounding several. The courage and marksmanship displayed by the Mongols were a surprise anything but pleasant for the allies. This was demonstrated again when the British force loaned to the Russians the 12-pounder of the *Terrible*, whose position it was necessary twice to shift, owing to the accurate fire of the Chinese. The shelling of the settlements became very severe, the British concession being struck by numerous large shrapnel. The women and children were ordered into the cellars of the town hall for safety.

At noon the Japanese infantry and a mountain battery advanced to the support of the Russians. The captain and three men of the battery were killed and a lieutenant and ten men wounded, but with only 60 officers and men, it silenced the battery on the native city wall. The bravery of the Japanese roused the admiration of their friends. Indeed, here and elsewhere throughout the war, these gallant little fellows proved that their only fault was their headlong intrepidity, which sometimes approached rashness. They were so eager to get at the enemy, that they spurned the caution of the Europeans.

The fighting ended at 5 o'clock in the afternoon, the ammunition of the Japanese being exhausted. The situation for the allies was grave. Reinforcements came in slowly, the railway line back to Taku was practically worthless, and river transportation slow and uncertain. There was no telegraphic communication with Taku, and the need for cavalry and artillery was urgent. Yet the secure holding of Tientsin was absolutely necessary before advancing against Peking.

The Chinese delivered a few scattering shells on the morning of July 4, but no harm was done. Their bravery and marksmanship astonished their opponents. Those yellow fanatics who took no prisoners, and who mutilated their dead, were not fighting with spears and matchlocks and bows and arrows, but with the most improved modern weapons, and they had been trained by the best European officers. The task of conquering them was more formidable than had been expected. Although the allies were on the best of terms with one another, this fact itself interfered with successful operations. Too much politeness prevailed and the actions as a whole were disjointed. A correspondent stated that, after the events described, it took all the following day to learn what had been done, and to gain this knowledge it was necessary to visit eight different headquarters, all of which were widely separated.

The troops in Tientsin were virtually besieged. Food was scarce and prices prohibitive. An epidemic threatened and the situation became very

difficult. More troops were urgently needed, but at daybreak, on the morning of July 9, those on hand, about 1,000 Japanese, 400 Russians, 700 British, and 100 Americans, with cavalry and artillery, attacked the Chinese, who were engaged in placing a battery to the west of the settlements. Under protection of the artillery, the Japanese led in the assault, while the other guns were aimed against the Chinese who occupied the village below the west arsenal. The Japanese infantry routed the Chinese, who fled across the open country, where they were assailed and cut down by the Japanese cavalry, who killed fully a hundred. Meanwhile, the American and Japanese sailors reoccupied the west arsenal after a brief but sharp fight with the defenders. Four guns, several banners, and seventy rifles were captured.

Admiral Seymour, commanding the British forces, and General Fukushima, the Japanese commander, were standing on a bridge at the west arsenal watching the effect of the shelling on the native city, when the Chinese opened with shrapnel, firing with surprising accuracy. One of the shells exploded on the bridge close to Admiral Seymour, who was slightly wounded. An infantry captain was killed, and several officers and a score of men hurt. A number of the crew of the British warship *Terrible*, who had seen service in Natal, declared the fighting worse than at Ladysmith. The Chinese continued for several hours to fire upon the settlements, and a number of casualties occurred.

The 10th of July was so quiet that the allies believed the enemy were planning some dangerous movement. Nothing took place until midnight, when a fierce attack was made on the Japanese and French troops and the Sikhs posted at the railway station. The forces lost severely, the Japanese having an officer and four subalterns killed and sixty men wounded, while there were about the same number injured among the French, and some twenty of the British. Troops were hurried forward from the other French and Japanese forces and the British were reinforced twice. Then a furious charge by the Japanese drove back the Chinese with heavy losses.

About an hour later the Russians made a general movement east of the native city, with the purpose of capturing a Chinese battery which caused great annoyance. The Ninth United States Infantry, which had just arrived, and the British, Japanese, and French started in to support the Russians, but on reaching the canal which they expected to pontoon, they found it a broad swamp and the movement had to be abandoned.

At earliest daybreak, July 13, the artillery opened a general attack on the native city. The Russians aimed to capture the railway fort northeast of the settlements, while the Japanese, Americans, British, Austrians, and French pushed through the west arsenal and stormed the walls of the city. The Japanese planned to shell these heavily and then breach them with gun-cotton.

The Russians advanced at midnight, intending to throw pontoons across the Lutai Canal and take the fort in reverse. A strong bombardment was opened to which the reply was weak. Soon after a tremendous explosion took place near the railway fort, which led to the belief that the magazine had been fired by the 4-inch guns that were throwing lyddite.

One Chinese arsenal was captured but the next offered stubborn resistance. After an hour's shelling of the defences, the commanders had a conference and decided to attack the wall. The American marines took the extreme left of the line, the Ninth regiment the right, with the Japanese and French advancing in the centre along the road, covered by the artillery. The movement brought a furious fire from the walls and villages, while the allies were compelled to remain on open ground, not able to breach the wall, because they could not cross the deep canal confronting them.

Most of the attacking troops, when exposed to the terrific fire of the Chinese, were able to find some kind of cover, but the American Ninth regiment was caught in a bend of the river and unable to gain the slightest screen, despite a forced advance in quest of one. While leading his line, Colonel Emerson H. Liscum was killed.

Now followed the inevitable, but none the less lamentable, confusion. The Japanese commander, General Fukushima advanced along the road after the charge in the morning, while the British commander General Dorward remained at the gate of the west arsenal. About the middle of the afternoon, the Japanese leader sent a message to General Dorward asking him to protect the flank west of the south arsenal.

When this message reached the British commander he could not understand it, for the man was unable to speak English. General Dorward sent a messenger to General Fukushima, but he could not find him, and for most of the afternoon there was really no communication among the different commanders. It is said the Chinese fire was so heavy that it was impossible to send litter bearers after the wounded.

Although the murderous fire prevented the Russians from taking the fort against which they moved, they occupied the villages north of the railroad station, which had greatly troubled the allies, captured a dozen guns, and exploded a magazine. The Ninth regiment succeeded in bringing away their wounded but were obliged to leave the dead behind. The American marines held their ground, their commander, Major Waller, withdrawing some of the guard at the arsenal to the wall. The Japanese and French held their positions.

After a desperate battle, lasting from the morning before, the allies took possession of the native city on the morning of July 14. The Chinese dead were too numerous to be counted. The casualties of the allies were over 700

killed and wounded. When the British entered the native city, they rushed through the narrow streets in the hope of capturing things that would be useful in the advance upon Peking. They took one river steamer and some 200 junks. The Japanese captured the Chinese treasury where they found 1,000,000 taels of silver which they handed over to the Americans. The Chinese made their last stand within the city in a fort situated in the northeast. The Russians attempted to take it, but were repulsed with heavy loss. They withdrew with their wounded, intending to renew the attack on the following morning, but much to their disgust the Japanese were ahead of them and carried it with a bayonet charge.

July 20 was devoted to looting the native city, and the scenes were indescribable. Tientsin was filled with a wild mob of Chinese and soldiers of all nationalities, who broke open stores, smashed safes and chests, and dashed hither and thither, their arms overflowing with jewelry, money, silver bars, silks, and furs. The roads were thronged with looters carrying off their plunder. The only attempts at restraint were by the Americans and Japanese, who behaved well. As for the Russians, we are told that in every engagement they proved themselves quite as barbarous as the Chinese. They slew the wounded, burned every village they came to, and spared neither women nor children who crossed their path.

Let us quote from an English paper a word of description concerning our own troops:

"If there had been no fighting, all the foreign observers would have gone back to their homes with a very poor opinion of the efficiency of the American troops. Luckily for General Chaffee and his soldiers there was fighting. When you see an American private advancing under fire, you begin to think there is something in the idea that the fighting unit of the future is the individual. Private Silas P. Holt acts by himself, for himself. He and his companions make for a common objective not like stiff, trained soldiers, but like panthers stalking a prey. Their eyes flash, their lithe bodies swing forward. There are murder and deadly intentness in every movement. When the American soldier lies down to fire, he does so with the intention of killing somebody. Most troops fire not at the enemy, but in the direction of the enemy. Not so the American.

"Each man drew his watchful breath, slow taken 'tween the teeth,
Trigger and eye and ear acock, knit brow and hard-drawn lips.

"That is a picture of the American soldier firing on his foe. But allied to their feline stealthiness the Americans in battle have most reckless courage. At times they expose themselves with a strange contempt for death. An officer

will take chances no European would care to take. The field battery was generally to be found in places where nobody read in tactics would have dared to put it. General Chaffee and his staff always rode where the enemy was most likely to see and shoot at them. Young and inexperienced correspondents were warned by older hands not to go during action near prominent buildings, large graves, or the American staff."



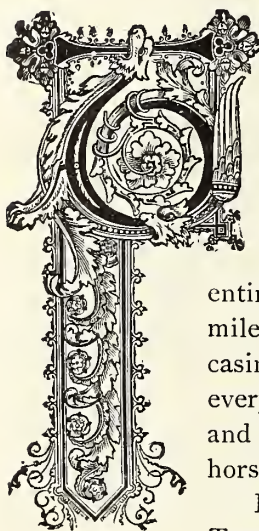
NUNS LEAVING THEIR CONVENTS TO ESCAPE THE BOXERS



WITHIN THE WALLS OF PEKING'S CHINESE CITY

Chapter CXLVII

"ON TO PEKING!"



IENTSIN being taken, the cry was "On to Peking!" from which several vague messages had been received. Peking (often incorrectly spelled Pekin) has been the capital of the Chinese empire since 1408, and stands about a hundred miles from the sea, in the northern province of Chi-li, sixty miles from the Great Wall. The population is estimated at nearly 3,000,000, the entire area at 27 miles, and the circuit of the walls at 25 miles. These walls are composed of earth, with an outer casing of brick; have embrasures for musketry or ordnance at every 50 feet, are 40 feet high, 30 feet thick at the bottom, and 12 feet at the top, which is paved with stone, and to which horsemen can ascend by means of a sloping way.

Peking has 16 gates, nine belonging to the Northern, or Tartar, city, and the remainder to the Southern, or Chinese, city. The two parts named are separated from each other by a wall with three gates. The Neitching, or Northern City, has three divisions,—the Forbidden City, the Imperial City, and the General City. The first, of mysterious interest, is enclosed by a yellow wall about two miles in circumference, which shuts in the palaces, pleasure grounds and temples of the sacred city. There the Emperor and his family, the ladies of the court and the attendant eunuchs live. The Emperor's private residence, grimly called the "Tranquil Palace of Heaven," is the most magnificent of all the buildings. The Imperial City is built around this central block and contains the palaces

of the princes, temples, spacious pleasure grounds and some of the government offices.

The General City lies between the Imperial City and the outer walls. It is more densely populated than either of the other two, and contains the most important of the public offices, including the various legations of foreign powers, which the allies sought to save.

Amid lowering skies and falling rain, the advance from Tientsin was begun on the afternoon of August 4. The relief force represented eight nations—British, Russians, Germans, French, Austrians, Italians, Japanese, and Americans. The Austrians and Italians had made no preparation to join the relieving column, and the Germans had only three hundred in the city, although many others were on the way. The French force was insignificant, and the real business devolved upon the Japanese, for they were the most numerous, and it seems almost right to say that they were the best of the troops, always excepting, of course, the Americans, who were certainly as brave, though showing more independence of individual action and less rigid discipline. Field Marshal von Waldersee, of the German army, was selected to command the allied forces, and met with a cordial reception from all hands.

The movement was both by land and by river, the latter so as to get most of the supplies to Tung-chou, where they were to swing off on the dash to Peking. All told, there were about twenty-two thousand fighting men in the relief column, of whom two thousand four hundred were Americans under the command of General Adna R. Chaffee, a veteran, and one of the very best fighters and officers in our army. Not counting the transportation corps, the Japanese had about twelve thousand troops, while the British had a few regular English troops, some Indian regiments, and a naval brigade of sailormen and marines, their total being some two thousand eight hundred, and they were well supplied with artillery. The Russians had about three thousand fighting men, with four eight-gun field batteries. The Frenchmen claimed to number eight hundred.

The plan was that the Russians should go up the left bank of the river with the French, while the Japanese, British, and Americans were to take the right flank, the one nearer Peking. At Peit-sang the Japs gave another of the many proofs of the admirable stuff of which they are made by a frontal attack on the Chinese in their strong intrenchments, from which, despite a murderous fire, they were routed and sent flying in a wild panic. The heat was fearful, and many of the Americans were prostrated. Nearly all flung aside their extra clothing and luggage, but the plucky Japs clung to theirs, even to the extra pair of shoes, and set the pace for all others, many of whom were not equal to the tremendous strain.

A conference was held by the commanding officers at Tung-chou on the afternoon of August 12, and it was decided to make a reconnoissance in force the next day in four roads toward Peking. Each force was to make camp seven miles from Tung-chou, and contact was to be preserved with all. On the 14th, all the forces were to be concentrated along the line of these camps and reconnoissances sent to and around the city. Every one believed it would take the hardest kind of fighting to force an entrance, and the understanding was that the general attack should be made at daylight on the morning of the 15th.

The camp was made as agreed upon, the four roads being parallel. In the afternoon, the Russians attempted to get the better of the other allies by stealing a march upon them. On what purported to be a reconnoissance, they sent out practically their whole force, whose report led their commander to violate his agreement for a joint attack. At midnight he marched against one of the Peking gates, opening into the Southern, or Chinese, city. This gate, in the course of half an hour, he succeeded in blowing open. The inner gate was forced with little difficulty, and the Russians, who more than once displayed horrible barbarity, killed all the Chinese whom they came across. Everything looked so easy that their commander believed he could push his way into the Tartar city and to the legations, and he set out to do so.

The Chinese were expecting and waiting for this very movement, and they opened with such a furious fire that ten of the eighteen battery horses were instantly killed, a number of men shot down, and the commander wounded. They made the best retreat possible, having had more than twenty killed and a hundred injured. The Chinese re-occupied the gate, and the Russian trick ended in disastrous failure.

When the Russians had effected their entrance into the city, they sent a messenger to notify the Japanese, but he did not find Generals Yamaguchi and Fukushima until after daylight. They made dispositions at once for their own attack and notified the Americans and British of what they were doing. The Japs are never laggards, and they hurried two battalions of infantry to the southern and larger of the two gates in the east wall of the Tartar city, with a company of engineers and a quantity of gun-cotton to blow it up. The Chinese made a determined resistance. There were large numbers of them, they were well armed, and behind the best kind of cover, which commanded every foot of ground over which the Japs had to advance. The shelling of the latter was wonderful in its accuracy, but whenever it stopped in order to give the infantry a chance to rush forward, the Chinese scrambled back to their positions and poured a hot fire through the loopholes. The Japanese suffered heavily, but they never mind a thing like that, and it was decided to blow up the gate at night if it could not be done before.

While the Japanese and Russians were thus facing the main resistance of the Chinese, two other forces, the British and the Americans, attacked at other points less strongly guarded. The experience of the Americans was peculiar. Two companies of them reached the wall of the city near where the Russians were being repelled. As all the neighboring Chinese were joining in that struggle our men were able to dash across the moat and reach the shelter of the wall unobserved. There the huge mass of the structure towered thirty feet above them. But age had crumbled its sheer surface and a few hardy spirits managed to clamber to the summit. Before they were discovered they let down ropes and hoisted their rifles to the top; then they helped their comrades up also. So they swept unopposed into the city.

Meanwhile the Russians had forced their gate for the second time. Then the whole Chinese defense gave way at once. Boxers and royal troops both took to flight; and through a woebegone and confused but unresisting crowd the Europeans poured into the city from every side. The Britons were the first to reach the legations, and found them still unharmed.

For more than two months the foreigners had been besieged within the shelter of their yards and buildings, turning these into fortresses. But there had been no very resolute attack upon them. The royal troops had left them alone, and while noisy crowds of boxers had raged at them and fired many shots, few of these took effect. Eight hundred foreigners and three thousand native Christian Chinese had been besieged. Only sixty-eight were killed. The relieving columns had assumed the brunt of the fighting, drawn off the Chinese troops, and suffered far heavier losses than the besieged legationers.

Meanwhile what had become of the Empress and her court? They had remained in Peking up to the very moment when the foreigners came swarming in over its walls. Then, as the assailants swept into the city from three sides, the Empress and her train fled by the gate in the fourth side, that which pointed to the west. The royal Manchu body guard forced its way through the city streets by firing volleys into the crowds of Chinamen who blocked the way. Soon the courtiers were safe from pursuit, but they did not cease their flight till they had journeyed six hundred miles farther into the interior, and reached the ancient city of Sian-fu, once the capital of the empire in very early days. Here they found peace and safety.

In Peking there was much disorder, and a most disgraceful amount of "looting," considering that the troops had come as the representatives of civilization. Soon, however, order was restored, and the old régime was gradually re-established. The different European governments were most of them really anxious to have China resume the management of her own affairs. As for Japan, she was specially unwilling to have any European authority

permanently established so near to her own shores. The United States also took a leading part in asserting that China must be for the Chinese, and that America could not sanction her conquest. Hence all that was really asked of China was that she should open her eyes, surrender her absurd obstinacy, and accept the modern world as it is.

Thus with the beginning of the twentieth century began the modernization of China. Japan had awakened to the necessity of change more than a generation before; but China had clung fervently to her old ways. The result had been this mad and hopeless Boxer uprising, and the capture of her capital by the foreign nations. From this time onward, though half-heartedly at first, the Chinese tried to study the foreign civilization and learn wherein its superiority lay.

The Empress from her distant retreat was persuaded to entrust full power to two men, Prince Ching, the aged president of her so-called "Grand Council," and Li Hung Chang, who had so successfully conducted the negotiations with Japan after the previous disastrous war. These two shrewd old men took control at the beginning of 1901, and made peace with the foreign nations. They agreed to pay an indemnity amounting to a quarter of a billion dollars; they sent Prince Chun, a younger brother of the Emperor, to Germany to make official apology for the murder of the German consul; they sent another great Manchu noble to apologize to Japan for the similar death of a minor Japanese official. Thus they made China's remorse widely known to all the world—and thus they got the foreigners out of Peking. In September of 1901 the last of the allied troops, the Americans and Japanese, turned the policing of the capital over to the Chinese and departed for their homes. The Chinese held a solemn purification of the city; and then the Empress returned, bringing back in her train the helpless Emperor and all the court. Before they reached there Li Hung Chang, the greatest Chinaman of the nineteenth century, had died, worn out with his labors for an ungrateful country.

Li had been nominally the governor of Chi-li, the chief Chinese province, the state of which Peking is the center. This important office was now given to Yuan Shi-kai, the man who was destined to play the most prominent part in China's sudden conversion into a modern republic. Yuan Shi-kai had previously been governor of the neighboring province of Shantung, and had there proved himself both able and far-seeing. Although fully alive to the necessity of improvements and reforms, he was jealous of the rights of his country and a staunch supporter of the dynasty. The army trained by him in Shantung was for a long time the only effective military force in the empire. It was he who warned the foreigners of their danger at the time of the Boxer uprising; and when the European and American troops hesitated to advance against

Peking, feeling that such a course was hopeless, that the massacre of the whites must be already accomplished, it was Yuan Shi-kai who notified them that the legations were still holding out. Yuan has ever since been regarded as a friend of the foreigners, or at least a convinced advocate of the necessity of a policy of friendliness toward them.

To Yuan Shi-kai and the aged Prince Ching was now entrusted the task of establishing whatever reforms they deemed essential. At heart, however, the aged Empress and all her Manchu nobles were opposed to everything modern; so the reformers had to move most cautiously. In 1902 they issued several edicts, the most notable being that which by permitting marriages between Manchus and Chinese began the breaking down of the barriers of caste. Another edict checked the practice of binding up women's feet and so rendering them incapable of any heavy work.

One notable Chinaman who was summoned to aid in the work of reform was Wu Ting-fang, well known to Americans from having been the Chinese ambassador to the United States during the Boxer outbreak. He had done everything possible to sustain harmonious relations, and had been a most potent aid to China here. Indeed, the United States now took the lead in protecting China, persuading other nations to enter an agreement guaranteeing China against partition. The United States also led the other nations in voluntarily reducing the total of her indemnity claim against China. Ultimately she forgave China almost the whole of this claim, with the result that China developed a most friendly feeling toward America and toward the republican form of government. She sent many of her ablest young men to be educated in our colleges. All this American kindness raised Wu Ting-fang to high esteem in China, and he was appointed to a commission to study foreign statecraft and arrange commercial treaties with all foreign nations.

Nevertheless, China's foreign relations soon brought her into trouble again. Everybody had guaranteed her territorial integrity; but Russia was so eager for an outlet to the Pacific Ocean from snow-bound Siberia that she found means to break the guarantee in the spirit if not in the letter. She built railroads through Manchuria, and under the plea of policing these she poured troops into the province and took complete possession of it. Meanwhile Yuan Shi-kai had been hard at work training his soldiers throughout Chi-li on European models. These soon reached a high state of efficiency, and as early as 1903 Yuan wanted to launch them against Russia and drive her from Manchuria. The aged and cautious Prince Ching, however, refused to plunge China into another European war.

Finally, as we know, this particular matter was taken out of China's hands by the Japanese, who fought Russia in 1904 and 1905, drove her out of

southern Manchuria, and took into their own hands the control of the railroads. To China it was bitter indeed to watch these two mighty foes battling for her territory and ignoring her altogether. But the insult gave her the last spur she needed, the final teaching that she must accept modern ideas. Moreover, the outcome of the war roused her hope and self-confidence. By Japan's example, she saw that Asiatics really could learn European modes of warfare and even come to excel in them. In 1905 some of Yuan Shi-kai's well-drilled troops were sent into Mongolia. Russia had been planning to seize that vast province; but when, after her Japanese disaster, these new-spirited Chinese garrisoned Mongolia, Russia drew back. So, for the time at least, the ancient home of the celebrated Kublai-Khan remained in China's possession.

Reform took on a new and ever more vigorous impulse. It still, however, met opposition both from the Manchu court and from the more ignorant multitude. When in 1905 the commission for the study of foreign governments was setting out from Peking, a bomb was hurled at the procession and several of the members of the commission were injured. Yet even this opposition, by employing so modern a method of protest as a bomb, showed how far China had awakened from her ancient sleep.

Most notable of the reforms of 1905 was the abolishing of the old system of examinations for appointment to government positions. Examinations were still held, but it was decreed that thereafter they should deal with modern subjects, and should test the candidate's knowledge of such themes as mathematics and geography, rather than his literary acquaintance with the thousand precepts of Confucius. This law has completely revolutionized Chinese schools. Foreign teachers have been summoned to their aid, or Chinese who had been educated abroad. The studies have become frankly scientific instead of religious; and a great central University thoroughly up to date has been established in Peking.

Another change, which one half regrets to chronicle, has been the extending to military leaders a rank and honor equal to that enjoyed by civil officials. For centuries the military art was despised in China; her chief generals were regarded as inferior to even the lower officers of state. As a natural result her armies had been neglected and poorly handled. Now all the young nobles were encouraged to take army positions. A warlike spirit re-rose.

Even more far reaching was the vigorous effort to wipe out the opium habit. This dreadful scourge had been spreading its tentacles over China in ever more deadly grip for over a century. Laws were now passed seeking to reduce the use of the drug by degrees and ultimately to abolish it altogether. China had been growing vast quantities of opium in her own fields, and England had been sending equally vast amounts into the country from her

opium fields in India. When China proved herself in earnest by actually reducing her own opium growth, England agreed to meet her half way and began reducing the Indian importation. Already the use of the drug has been reduced one-half; and China looks forward hopefully to a time when she may be able to stamp it out altogether.

In 1908 the most serious practical bar to Chinese progress disappeared. The aged Empress Tsi-hssi died. She had always been Manchu at heart; she had fought every modern innovation all she dared; she had deprived the Emperor of power the moment he lent his aid to reform. Even in her death she struck her last blow at the cause she dreaded, by carrying off with her the Emperor, Kwang-su. We are asked to believe that his death, which occurred just before hers, was natural; but if so it was a most savage coincidence, and a whisper has spread through the world that when Tsi-hssi felt her end approaching she was determined not to leave Kwang-su in power as a friend of reform; hence she sent him her imperial permission to choose the manner of his death, and he chose suicide.

At all events Tsi-hssi left the throne to a new emperor, the last of the long Manchu line. She selected for the throne a child of the royal race, a three-year-old baby named Pu-yi. This royal Emperor Pu-yi was the son of Kwang-su's younger brother, Prince Chun, the same who had visited Europe with China's apologies after the Boxer outbreak. Prince Chun was still a youth, only twenty-six; but he was made regent of the empire to govern for his baby son. Having thus "put her house in order" Tsi-hssi died. Beginning her remarkable career as a slave girl, she had risen to be chief Empress and then the sole and absolute ruler over 400,000,000 people; and she had retained her power for forty years through all the tumults and upheaval that had shaken China to its foundation.

Prince Chun, the new regent, was nominally a friend of reform, or at least so he hastened to assure the European powers. Almost his first act, however, was to dismiss Yuan Shi-kai from his councils. Rumor says he had pledged himself to his dying brother to do this; for Kwang-su had hated the great reformer bitterly. Prince Chun now blamed Yuan Shi-kai for having let foreigners build railroads through the country. These were being hurried forward everywhere; and Chun declared they must on their completion become government property. This startled European capitalists who had begun to pour their money freely into China, and the golden flow was stopped.

Meanwhile the preparations, long since begun, for establishing some form of representative government in China, were being carried on. Local councils were established in each province in 1910. These were not really elected by the people, yet they felt themselves to be the people's voice; and headed by the

council of Chi-li, the chief province, they repeatedly petitioned for a Constitution. Prince Chun replied that the time was not yet ripe; he promised, however, to call an elected assembly in eight years, and meanwhile he appointed a "National Senate" to share in the work of government.

This compromise proved wholly unsatisfactory. Even the appointed Senate insisted on the immediate establishment of some sort of responsible government. Enthusiastic patriots swarmed to Peking, clamoring for their Constitution. One set of reformers even cut off a finger each and enclosed with their petition these gory evidences of their earnestness. Prince Chun yielded in so far as to declare that he would establish a cabinet government, that is, the laws should issue not from himself but from a collection of ministers whom he would appoint and who would be "advised" by his appointed National Senate. This step in the direction of responsible government was actually undertaken in May, 1911; the ancient Grand Council which had been gathered round the Emperor during all the Manchu rule was dissolved, and its president, the aged and honored Prince Ching, was made prime minister of the new government.

Even this forward step proved all too feeble to satisfy the aroused nation. A revolution was organized, having for its object the doing away entirely with these feeble, worthless Manchu Emperors and all their court. This revolt widely approved, cleverly arranged, sprang suddenly into action in October, 1911. The city of Wuchang in central China, on the banks of the Yang-tse-kiang, was the first to declare its freedom from the Emperor; but the movement spread like a flame until the whole Yang-tse-kiang valley had joined Wuchang.

The first step by which Prince Chun endeavored to meet this outbreak was by recalling to his councils, the able and loyal Yuan Shi-kai, whom he had previously degraded. But Yuan was far too shrewd to run as soon as he was beckoned to. He sent word to Peking that he was still unwell from the same illness that had caused his retirement. Chun took the hint and resigned all his own authority into Yuan's hands. The latter was made practically dictator of China. All the hopes of the Manchu throne were now centered on this man who had been so haughtily dismissed.

Yuan moved vigorously. He sent troops to suppress the revolutionaries; and at the same time he proclaimed that their object was accomplished, that constitutional government was to be established immediately. A makeshift national assembly was gathered in Peking; a makeshift government was constructed, and Yuan was declared its prime minister. This assembly then approved every demand which the reformers had been urging; and from the Manchu throne, nominally from the lips of the baby Emperor, came a most

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